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ABSTRACT

The knowledge base about the induction of beginning teachers is explored. The first section presents an overview of non-research professional literature published on the beginning teacher in the United States from 1930 to the present. Books, journal articles, and ERIC documents are considered in four overlapping categories: (1) reflective interpretations of beginning teachers' experiences; (2) advice on the first year of teaching; (3) scholarly essays about the beginning teacher and the process of beginning to teach; and (4) reports of beginning teachers' own experiences. In the second section, research on the beginning teacher is reviewed. Induction practices, induction programs, and induction strategies are examined to deliberate actions designed to provide entry level support for beginning teachers. This research is considered in five clusters: (1) the problems of beginning teachers; (2) the psychosocial aspects of beginning to teach; (3) evaluation of preservice and inservice induction efforts; (4) discipline and the beginning of school; and (5) qualitative studies on beginning to teach. Current induction efforts are considered in relation to research on the beginning teacher. In the final section of this paper, an agenda for research on beginning to teach is proposed. (JD)

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RESEARCH ON THE BEGINNING TEACHER: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

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In the professional life span of teachers, few periods of time compare in impact and importance with the first year of teaching. The beginning of a teaching career for some may be charged with excitement, challenge, and exhilarating success. For others, the first year of teaching may seem to be confusing, uncontrollable, filled with unsolvable problems, and threatened by personal defeat and failure. For many, beginning to teach is a unique and more balanced mixture of success, problems, surprises and satisfactions. For all engaged in the educational enterprise, the first year of teaching has come to be recognized as a unique and significant period in the professional and personal lives of teachers.

Professional Lives of Beginning Teachers

It is probably safe to assume that at no other time in their teaching career will teachers be so unsure of their own competence as during the first year of teaching. Beginning teachers are faced with difficult challenges to their professional self-confidence. In many instances they

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are uncertain about what they should actually do in the classroom. What course of action should be taken? What strategies should be used to meet the varying demands of the work of teaching? Also, first year teachers are faced with gnawing doubts: Will students listen to me? Will they do the things I ask? Will I keep my job as enrollments decline?

The circumstances of beginning teachers are further complicated by administrators' and colleagues' lack of knowledge of the beginners' competence. For students, parents, other teachers and principals, beginning teachers are a new and unknown entity. Beginning teachers are strangers to the school communities they enter. They bring no credible background of professional experience. They bring no reputation other than "beginner." At no other time in a teacher's professional career are others so unsure of the beginner's competence as during his or her first year of teaching.

First year teachers are aliens in a strange world; a world that is both known and unknown to them. Though they have spent thousands of hours in schools watching teachers and watching the schooling process, first year teachers are not familiar with the specific school setting in which they begin to teach. Beginning teachers must learn the geography of their new community setting: the location of supplies, the music teacher's room, the P. E. director's office, hallways, stairwells, and doors. They are not familiar with the rules and regulations which govern the internal operation of the school community and the larger system in which they are teaching. For instance, procedures for field trips, accident reports, professional leave, and assigned duties may be neither clear nor readily available to beginning teachers.

Even more difficult to comprehend are the informal routines and customs of the school. Unless told, it might take the beginning teacher a while to realize that the principal always pulls fire drills during sixth period. A program set for Wednesday night by the beginning teacher might be in conflict with the local community's church attendance patterns. Such situations may prove troublesome for the first year teacher who is not likely to be aware of the unwritten lore of the community.

Perhaps more important, first year teachers do not know the other people in their work setting. Beginning teachers are not familiar with the names, faces, and personalities of those with whom they work. Beginners are outsiders entering an ongoing professional and social community. They bring to this community only a weak and embryonic sense of belonging to the profession of teaching. They have a more limited sense of belonging to the specific school community in which they are to teach.

Personal Lives of Beginning Teachers

At the same time first year teachers are facing an unfamiliar work setting, their personal lives are often undergoing reorientation and change (Johnson, 1979b; Ryan, et al., 1980). For many beginning teachers, life has been concerned with school, friends and family. For most beginning teachers, completing college has been their primary endeavor. Their immediate and tangible goal has been graduation and finding a teaching position. Suddenly, over the short space of a summer or less, beginning teachers' lives are changed dramatically. They are no longer students. Now they are teachers. No longer can they rely on their

knowledge, understanding and experience of the student's role. They are now thrust into the role of teachers, a role they have observed countless times but only briefly tried out.

First year teachers may face other changes in their lives as well. With their beginning teaching position--and initial pay-check--may come the first real financial independence in their lives. They must alter their life-style to a new budget and to attend to other responsibilities incumbent upon their new status as a teacher. Family relationships often must be altered to accommodate the change from student to full-time wage earner. Since they are often thrust into a new locale, suitable housing must be obtained and made livable. The beginning teacher must learn where to shop for his or her various needs, where to purchase car insurance, where to find doctors and dentists and where to register to vote.

In this brief introduction to the problems of the beginning teacher we have sketched a few of the most obvious factors affecting their professional and personal lives. Our intent was to provide a backdrop for a closer consideration of the knowledge base about the induction of beginning teachers. We suggest, in the balance of this essay, that our knowledge about the beginning teachers and the process of beginning to teach consists largely of intuition, personal wisdom, advice, and recollections. It is based on a limited foundation of thoughtful research and scholarship. We further suggest that what teacher induction research knowledge is available to teacher educators and school practitioners is rarely put into practice.

Literature About the Beginning Teacher

First, to provide an additional perspective from which to view the research, this brief overview will examine non-research professional literature published on the beginning teacher in the United States from 1930 to the present. Books, journal articles and microfiche will be considered in terms of four overlapping categories proposed by Applegate et al. (1977): (a) reflective interpretations of beginning teachers' experiences, (b) advice on the first year of teaching, (c) scholarly essays about the beginning teacher and the process of beginning to teach, and (d) reports of beginning teachers' own experiences. Research on the beginning teacher, usually a fifth category, will be considered separately in greater detail following this overview.

Reflective interpretations of beginning teachers' experiences. This category consists of accounts of beginning teachers, interpreted from the theoretical perspectives of anthropology, psychology, and sociology. Fuchs (1969) and Eddy (1969) were the first to bring theoretical perspectives from anthropology to the self-reports of beginning teachers. Eddy (1969), for example, as part of a teacher education curriculum development project using reports of twenty-two beginning teachers in inner-city schools, interprets their experiences through theories of transition. Ryan's (1970) interpretive essay is combined with accounts of three inner-city and three suburban beginning teachers. More recently, Ryan et al. (1980) offer accounts of twelve beginning teachers' experiences, each of which has been written by an observer after extensive classroom observation and interviews. The result of a comprehensive field study of

eighteen first year teachers in rural, suburban, and urban settings representing K-12 special subject and regular classroom, these twelve accounts present fine-grained portraits which describe a range of experiences in the professional and personal lives of these twelve beginning teachers. These acounts provide a unique view of the reality of the first year teaching experience since the participant's subjective, first-hand reports are complemented by the more objective perspective of the trained observer. These informed accounts afford needed insight into the ecological realities of the beginning teacher. Such description and interpretation represents a fundamental item of any research agenda into the study of beginning teachers.

Advice about beginning to teach. The most frequent type of professional periodical literature about beginning to teach comprises this category (Johnson, 1978). Most often written by higher education faculty members, titles such as, "Seven Touchstones for Beginning Teachers" (Krajewski & Shuman, 1976) or simply, "Advice for Beginning Teachers" (Mangione, 1969) are commonplace. The advice frequently focuses on classroom management of discipline (Doyle, 1975; Reimer, 1970; Visor, 1973), planning for the first days (Coard, 1957; Dawson, 1960), or planning in general (Andrews, 1967; Bromberg, 1968). Such advice may be highly specific admonitions to beginning teachers of agriculture, business, typing, music, or speech. More frequently, advice is directed to all beginning teachers. The degree of specificity and the quality of advice to beginning teachers varies greatly. Applegate et al. (1977) have noted that advice offered in one publication may actually contract advice offered in another.

While advice to beginning teachers is most frequently represented in this category, advice about beginning teachers is also common. Such advice is usually written by college faculty or school administrators and is directed to other principals and supervisors (Brown, 1973; Brown & Willems, 1977; Marachio, 1971; Southwell, 1970; and Wolford, 1931). Such advice represents opinions about the nature of the support beginning teachers require and the sorts of problems for which supervisory personnel should be watching. Advice to beginning teachers and to those responsible for beginning teachers most often appears to be based primarily on the writer's personal experience.

Scholarly essays about beginning to teach. Analyses of specific aspects of beginning to teach comprise an important part of the literature about the beginning teacher. These papers address topics and issues such as anxiety (Jersild, 1966), early career experiences (Bush, 1965), socialization (Jackson, 1974), survival (Ryan, 1974), personal and professional development (Glassberg, 1979), induction (Howey & Bents, 1979; Rehage, 1968), and internships (Bents & Howey, 1979). In contrast to reflective interpretations of beginning teachers' experiences, these essays frequently examine a single aspect of the first year experience in tightly focused analyses which combine relevant social science theory and research data with the writer's understanding of the world of beginning teachers. These essays thus provide a basis for understanding important specific facets of beginning to teach.

Reports of beginning teachers' experiences. First person reports by beginning teachers in the process of their beginning experience comprise this category (Banks, 1939; Leiberman, 1975; Milius, 1952; Smith, 1949; Spinning, 1960). Publication of beginning teachers' accounts of their experience are a common feature of the professional literature about beginning teachers. The usual format includes surprises, problems encountered and conquered, and satisfactions. Another predictable feature of such accounts is their almost exclusively positive aura. Only one account with an overall negative tone was encountered in a recent analysis of professional periodical literature (Johnston, 1978).

Research on the Beginning Teacher

In gathering material for this review, we were faced with the question: What constitutes a "beginning" teacher? Does enrollment in the first professional preservice teacher education course constitute beginning status as suggested by Gaede (1978), or as Coates and Thorensen (1976) imply, is beginning status earned at the start of the first field experience or student teaching? This lack of clear terminology can pose problems in interpretation and application of research findings (Tisher, Fyfield & Taylor, 1978).

In the present review, research was included if any of the subjects were described as first year teachers in their initial professional experience following graduation. (See Haberman's chapter for review of research on student teaching.) We have further limited the present review to studies of beginning teachers in this country, though acknowledging that considerable attention is being given to the induction process in other countries (Bolam, 1973, 1976; Tisher, 1979).

Throughout this chapter, the related terms induction practices, induction programs, and induction strategies are used to refer to deliberate actions designed to provide entry-level support for beginning teachers. These supportive efforts are designed to increase the likelihood that beginning teachers will be successful in their initial teaching experiences, and will continue in the profession. Typically, induction practices are not made available to "experienced" teachers. Reduction of teaching loads, extra time for preparation, and time off for observation of other teachers are but a few examples of common induction practices. Generally, induction practices are extended only to teachers during their first or second years of teaching.

In the remainder of this chapter, research on beginning teachers will be considered in five clusters: (a) the problems of beginning teachers, (b) the psychosocial aspects of beginning to teach, (c) evaluation of preservice and inservice induction efforts, (d) disipline and the beginning of school, and (e) qualitative studies of beginning to teach. Next, current induction efforts will be considered in relation to the research on the beginning teacher. In the final section of this chapter, an agenda for research on beginning to teach will be proposed.

Research on problems of beginning teachers. The most frequent type of research literature on beginning teachers in the past five decades has focused in one form or another on the problems of the beginning teacher--a fact precisely paralleled in the non-research literature. The orientation of such research on problems has varied little in the past fifty years. Initial efforts were concerned primarily with the identification of

problems in order to improve supervision support or as the basis for preservice curriculum development. Efforts to validate or evaluate teacher education programs or induction support programs also spawned problems research. Efforts to predict performance of beginning teachers in varied settings resulted in other problems studies (Turner, 1967). Efforts to link problems to particular personality traits or teacher characteristics gave rise to still other studies of the problems of beginning teachers (Cohen & Brawer, 1967; Ort, 1964; Turner, 1965).

Barr and Rudisill (1930) studied 120 first and second year teachers on the assumption that knowledge of the most frequent problems of beginning teachers would constitute the basis for improved supervision practices. Later studies of problems by other researchers were also based on this assumption and used similar research procedures. For purposes of comparison, general statements of difficulties of beginning teachers were also secured from principals. Discipline, motivation of students, and organization of work and teaching materials were persistent difficulties throughout the first two years. Discipline, planning and organization, what to expect of students, were characteristic difficulties during the first two weeks.

Johnson and Umstattd (1932) sought to identify classroom difficulties of beginning teachers in order to improve teacher training programs. Using a list of beginning teacher problems gleaned form the literature and from administrators, 119 first year teachers were asked to rate on a scale from 1 (always) to 7 (never) the frequency with which they encountered each of the problems. The most frequent problems were remarkably similar to those identified by Barr and Rudisill (1930). Eliassen (1932) employed

a procedure similar to Johnson and Umstattd (1932), and obtained similar results. Kyte's (1936) study of problems confronting 141 beginning rural teachers also used a similar procedure. The author developed a list of 175 problems and asked the teachers to check a problem once if it was "troublesome" and twice if it was "very difficult." The findings deal with instructional problems and, though not unlike those reported in the studies above, were more specific to features of rural schools. McGill (1948), in a study of beginning business teachers, obtained his data by means of "discussion" and an undescribed "survey" of beginning teachers. Grading, motivation of students, and classroom management were identified as general instructional problems. Flesher's (1945) study of problems of beginning teachers asked both teachers and administrators to rate the frequency, difficulty, and degree of seriousness of problems. As with the other studies cited above, the majority of problems faced by beginning teachers were in the area of relationships between teacher and pupil. Discipline problems were reported with the greatest frequency by both teachers and supervisors.

During the 1950's there was a marked increase in the frequency of survey research on the problems of beginning teachers. Research methods changed little during this period, nor were any significantly new problems discovered. Most researchers derived beginning teacher problems from professional literature, or asked principals or supervisors to list the problems they observed in beginning teachers. Given a list of problems, researchers surveyed beginning teachers, asking them to tell, for each type of problem, how frequently it occurred, how difficult a problem it was, whether they needed help with it, and whether they received that

help. Rarely were beginning teachers themselves asked directly: What problems do you perceive you have in your teaching?

The general intent of the beginning teacher problems studied in the 1950's was the improvement of supervision during the first year. The studies assumed that if problems could be identified as frequent and significant, then appropriate intervention and remedial action could be taken by principals, supervisors, and to a lesser extent, preservice teacher education programs. The beginning teacher problems studies of the 50's supplies no new wealth of information about the difficulties encountered by beginning teachers. Wey's study (1951) is representative. Wey found that both student teachers and beginning teachers have these problems: (a) handling problems of pupil control and discipline, (b) adjusting to deficiencies in school equipment, physical condition, and materials, (c) adjusting to the teaching assignment, (d) adjusting to needs, interests, and abilities of pupils, and (e) motivating pupil interest and response. Readers should note the similarity of Wey's (1951) findings with those of Barr and Rudisill (1930) twenty years earlier.

The procedures and findings of other problems studies demonstrate little variation. Strickland (1956) explored beginning teachers' rankings of the severity of adjustment problems, and the extent to which they had received help with these problems. Teachers were asked to rank problem statements taken from a survey of professional literature. Wallace (1951) surveyed 136 beginning teachers' problems, though included in the sample were "new, experienced teachers." Again, the professional literature supplied the list of problems. Lambert (1956) examined the status as well as problems of beginning teachers. Tower (1956) surveyed beginning

teachers with a list of problem statements gathered from beginning teachers, experienced teachers, principals and supervisors. Cable (1956) summarized findings from five dissertations on the problems of beginning teachers, each of which essentially used the procedures described above. The collective results of these investigations differed little from those of Wey (1951) and other studies of problems of beginning teachers undertaken in the previous two decades.

In constrast to the 1930 through 1950 focus on the improvement of preservice programs and inservice supervision practices, during the next two decades several studies explored relations between personality traits or characteristics of beginning teachers and problems experienced in beginning to teach. Smith (1950) suggests the importance of studying the problems of beginning teachers since problems can be viewed as attributes of teacher personality. In a similar study, Stout (1952) queried 80 administrators and supervisors about deficiencies of beginning teachers for whom they were responsible. The findings, while similar to earlier studies, were discussed from the perspective of beginning teacher "personality and character traits."

Later studies examined relationships existing between certain personality characteristics of beginning teachers and supervisors' ratings of the beginners' abilities to meet the general demands of their position. Research by Cohen and Brawer (1967), Ort (1964), and Turner (1965) used measures of teacher personality characteristics such as "warmth" and "friendliness" in attempts to predict teaching success and to explore relationships between the diverse characteristics of teachers and the kind of teaching environment to which particular constellations of

characteristics would be most adaptive. The Sprinthall study of student teachers in Chapter ___ of this book is illustrative of this type of research.

In 1963, Dropkin and Taylor used a questionnaire containing 70 items categorized into seven professional problem areas. Seventy-eight elementary school teachers were asked to rank the degree of difficulty of the problems they experienced. Two preservice variables were correlated with each problem area scores: grade point average, and the total score on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination. The problems in descending order of difficulty were: (a) discipline, (b) relations with parents, (c) methods of teaching, (d) evaluation, (e) planning, (f) materials and resources, and (g) classroom routines. Problems areas a, e, f, and g were significantly related in a negative direction to grade point average, and area (f) was significantly related in a negative direction to the ACE Psychological Examination scores.

Studies by Cornett (1969) and Turner (1967) examined the relationship of principals' and supervisors' ratings of beginning teachers with preservice course grades and teacher characteristic scales. Turner summarized neatly, "On the basis of the present data it would be unwise to contend that one can predict with surety the kinds of problems that beginning elementary school teachers will have" (p. 256). Turner's remarks, though directed to his own study, can be meaningfully applied to the general line of research on predicting beginning teacher problems from personality characteristics. This line of inquiry extends the general problems type of research by identifying problems associated with certain teacher characteristics and suggests variables for further study in aptitude-treatment-interaction designs.

Study of problems of beginning teachers sometimes leads to changes in inservice and preservice programs and instructional alternatives. Broadbent and Cruikshank's (1965) efforts to identify and analyze the problems of first year teachers led to the development of simulation materials for use in the preservice teacher education program (Broadbent & Cruickshank, 1967). Some preservice teacher education program followup and evaluation efforts (Flowers & Shearon, 1976; Vittetoe, 1977; also see Cooper review in Chapter ___) are also examples of beginning teacher problems studies and suggest areas from which program reform could proceed.

Given the relatively long history and frequency of efforts to study the problems of beginning teachers, there has been only a limited contribution to understanding the process of beginning to teach. Most studies of the problems of beginning teachers have not aimed for a complete accounting of the complex events in the lives of beginning teachers and questions can be raised regarding the extent to which this line of inquiry has adequately explored beginning teachers' problems. Why, for example, has there been little new understanding of problems of beginning teachers since studies from the early thirties (cf. Barr & Rudisill, 1930; Dropkin & Taylor, 1963; Flesher, 1945; Wey, 1951)? The problems identified in these studies, with minor exceptions, have remained the same. With such an apparently reliable accounting of problems of beginning teachers, new methods of incorporating this knowledge in future research designs should be sought. Methodological shortcomings may account for some limitations of the knowledge generated from beginning teacher problems studies.

Pencil and paper questionnaires and descriptive surveys provide little usable knowledge of the realm of specific teacher behaviors in

specific school and classroom environments. This type of research provides only the most basic knowledge as a necessary first step for providing help to beginning teachers. A more fundamental methodological weakness stems, however, from the source of many problem statements in these surveys. In many studies, the professional literature was the source of problem statements to which beginning teachers were asked to respond. In others, data was bounded by the perceptions of problems by those outside the classroom. Rarely, however, were first year teachers themselves involved in framing questions which addressed the problems they were experiencing.

Johnston (1978) has observed that the bulk of all periodical literature about beginning teachers was written by experienced teachers, administrators and supervisors. In other instances, researchers polled experienced teachers, administrators and supervisors, asking them for their perceptions of problems of beginning teachers. Thus, he suggests that it is not surprising that the findings of fifty years of beginning teacher problems research closely parallels the non-research professional literature. There has been little opportunity for beginning teachers to identify with some precision problems other than those which their professional colleagues and superiors think they encounter. The research findings do reinforce the logical and intuitively common sense understandings about the transition from student to practicing professional, and the more general difficulties facing anyone who begins any new job for the first time.

As useful and comforting as it may be to know that beginning teachers do have problems and that the problems often lie in the areas suspected,

research on the problems of beginning teachers provides little knowledge of why beginning teachers have problems; of why some beginners experience problems and others do not; of why some problems occur in some situations, and not in others; and what can be done to prevent problems. As a general line of inquiry, research on the problems of beginning teachers has failed to move beyond the basic question of "what problems do beginning teachers experience?" and general suggestions for addressing these. Comprehensive ecological descriptions of the "who, what, when, why, and where" of problems of beginning teachers is clearly needed with the beginning teacher accorded a more central role in the inquiry process.

Psychosocial research on beginning teachers. There is no scarcity of psychosocial perspectives on the environment and the work of teaching in general (Bidwell, 1973, Dreeben, 1970; Elsbree, 1939; Lortie, 1975; Waller, 1967). There are also more focused considerations of research on schools as organizations (Bidwell, 1965; Dreeben, 1970, 1973; Lortie, 1973, 1975), the school as a place to work (Dreeben, 1973), and teaching as work (Becker, 1952; Geer, 1966; Lortie, 1973). There is considerably less knowledge of the psychosocial aspects of beginning to teach.

Lortie (1975) has observed that beginning teachers do not ease into the role of teacher. They are students in June and teachers in August. There is little opportunity for beginning teachers to learn the role of teacher before entering the professional work world. The socialization process is made more difficult since they are isolated from more experienced teachers.

The socialization of beginning teachers was a frequent research topic in the sixties. Perspectives from psychology and sociology have provided four alternative explanations of beginning teacher socialization. Edgar and Warren (1969) studied the developing values of beginning teachers. They examined how the values of sanctioning colleagues affected beginning teachers' values. Edgar and Warren presented a view of socialization which involves pressure on beginning teachers to change in socially "desirable" ways. They observed that co-workers with sanctioning and evaluative power over beginning teachers are likely to cause beginners to drop previous patterns of behavior and to accept new behavior norms which are held by such significant others.

Hoy, in a series of studies with student teachers (1967) and first and second year teachers (1968, 1969) examined the shaping of "pupil control ideology" of beginning teachers. He was concerned with idealistic new teachers who were confronted with a relatively custodial or control orientation as they became a part of the organization. Hoy argued the importance of such concern since he found that in most school subcultures good teaching and good discipline were equated. Hoy's (1969) findings support the general hypothesis that interaction with colleagues socializes (especially student and beginning) teachers to adopt a more custodial pupil control ideology.

Haller (1967) took a different perspective. In an ingenious socio-linguistic study, Haller demonstrated that increased contact with children changed certain aspects of teacher speech in the direction of more child-like, less adult patterns. Haller suggested that teachers are rewarded by certain pupil behavior which teachers interpret as task achievement. In

the colleagial isolation of the work of teaching, such immediate indications of effective role performance have considerable power to modify teacher behavior. In this case, it was hypothesized that primary and experienced elementary teachers would evidence decreased speech complexity in their adult interactions as length of teaching experience increased. The hypothesis was supported in the case of teachers' use of complex modes of speech (i.e. negative and passive sentences). Haller's postulation of an operant conditioning mechanism in teacher socialization is intriguing and bears further exploration. Such a conceptualization of classroom reward mechanisms offers a fruitful theoretical framework for further research on beginning to teach. Moreover, teachers' speech represents a potentially rich data source which is yet to be fully explored.

Wright and Tuska (1966, 1967, 1968) have studied the socialization of beginning teachers from a psycho-analytic perspective. They suggest that teacher behavior is affected to a considerable extent by relationships with parents and significant teachers during early childhood. Wright and Tuska (1967) found that childhood identifications with Mother, Father, or Teacher affect prospective teachers' choices to work with primary, middle and high school students. They further suggest that an understanding of an individual teacher's personal orientations should be incorporated in their preservice and inservice training.

In a later study (1968), they report that at tne end of the first year of teaching, beginning teachers rated themselves significantly less happy, less obedient, and less inspiring, and significantly higher on acting impulsively, controlling, and blaming others for their problems

than they were at the beginning of the first year. They interpret these findings in relation to the failure of the student teaching experience to correct the fantasy impressions about teaching which underlie the decision to become a teacher. This line of inquiry holds potential for understanding why many beginning teachers leave teaching at the end of their first or second year.

Beyond these few sociological and psychological perspectives on how beginning teachers become socialized in the teaching professions, there is little research about the beginning teacher in the psychosocial domain. Ligana (1970), using the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI), examined beginning teacher attitudes toward students. He described a "curve of disenchantment," a strong downward change in beginning teachers' attitudes toward students during the first four months of teaching. He reports that beginning teachers' MTAI scores during this period are actually lower than those of students just entering training. Following the initial four months of teaching experience, beginning teacher attitudes level out and begin a slight rise.

Gaede (1978) studied beginning preservice teacher education students, students just prior to student teaching, students just after student teaching, beginning teachers at the end of their first year, and teachers at the end of their third year. He demonstrated that knowledge of teaching, as measured by the Professional Training Readiness Inventory, decreased significantly by the end of the first year of teaching, while it rose in all other groups. Gaede's findings are generally consonant with those of Collea (1972), Wright & Tuska (1968) and others.

Unlike the problems research, which simply affirms and describes particular aspects of the experience of beginning teachers, psychosocial research on the beginning teacher, however sparse, presents explanations about the important socialization process in the lives of beginning teachers. This line or research has provided a variety of tentative explanations which should be further researched. We are fortunate to have multiple perspectives from which to launch further research.

Preservice and induction evaluation research. A number of similar studies were accomplished in the late sixties and seventies to evaluate preservice teacher education programs or induction programs. Only a handful have been published. Others are available on ERIC microfiche. Typical is Handley and Shills' (1973) study of work values and job attitudes of beginning teachers in vocational education in Mississippi. Studies such as these examine specific populations in specific regions and thus are limited in their contribution to a broad understanding of the process of beginning to teach (Bisbee, 1973; Costa, 1975; McCampbell, 1970; Moore & Bender, 1976).

There are a few studies of general classroom teachers. For example, Blackburn and Crandall (1975) and Blackburn (1977) have studied populations of K-12 beginning teachers. These studies report a pilot program for aiding beginning teachers with the responsibility shared among the teacher training institution, the local education agency, and the state department of education. The program sought to identify both common and specific needs for members of the experimental group, and to meet those needs. Questionnaires were used to determine beginning teacher needs.

Pre- and posttests were administered to determine the initial status and progress of teachers. Interviews and summative questionnaires were used to determine the most effective means of support for teachers in the program. Data from the second year showed significantly higher levels for teacher attitudes and principal ratings of teacher competencies in the experimental group. However, no significant differences were observed in student progress or attitudes in either the control or experimental group during the first and second years of teaching.

As the effect of NCATE Standard 6.1 calling for follow-up studies of preservice teacher education programs is felt, and as more states mandate internship programs (Bents & Howey, 1979) additional research of this sort will likely be forthcoming.

Discipline and beginning school. The remaining quantitative studies reviewed here suggest the importance of the first days of school in establishing patterns of appropriate student discipline. In studies by Moskowitz and Hayman (1974, 1976) structured observations and field notes were collected on both junior high first year teachers and experienced teachers judged as "best" by their students. Results appear to support the contention that the struggle for effective instruction is often won or lost at the very beginning of the school year. The first contact with students appeared to be crucial in this regard. Moskowitz and Hayman found that differences between first year and experienced teachers rated as "best" at the start of the school year related to climate-setting behaviors. The experienced teachers used the first day to get students oriented. First year teachers tended to begin content activities more

quickly. The experienced teachers smiled at and joked with students more than first year teachers, and dealt more with student feelings than did first year teachers.

Recent studies of effective classroom management at the beginning of the year have been conducted at the elementary level (Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1979) and at the junior high school level (Emmer, Evertson, 1980). These studies, outgrowths of the Correlates of Effective Teaching Program at the Texas Research and Development Center, include beginning teachers in the samples, but do not report data in terms of teacher experience. Initial data does, however, generally support Moskowitz and Hayman's findings.

In the Elementary School Study (Emmer et al., 1979), ratings of the degree of student engagement at task were used to rank teachers for comparison on emergent organizational strategies. Successful managers made clear presentations to students about rules, procedures, and assignments. These teachers followed up by pointing out to the students in detail what they were and were not doing that was appropriate. They were consistent in this attention to detail. Successful managers had thought about, established, and communicated rules to students before problems arose. Finally, they considered the teaching of these rules and procedures as a very important part of the first weeks of instruction.

Though analysis of the data from the junior high classroom organization study is not yet completed (Emmer et al., 1980), initial findings are similar to those of the elementary study. It was clear that successful classroom managers had carefully promulgated clear, realistic expectations and rules on important areas of classroom procedure before classes began.

Also, when school began, successful teachers seriously took the time to teach rules and procedures to their students.

The results of both of these studies are presently being applied in a limited pilot study which is examining the effects of training relatively inexperienced teachers prior to the start of school. This pilot has produced encouraging preliminary findings which suggest that training in initial management strategies results in less off-task behavior and more students on task during academic activities (Evertson, 1980). Among other findings, teachers in the treatment groups did a better job of teaching their students rules and procedures and presented directions and instructions more clearly.

The efforts of the researchers at the Texas Research and Development Center for Teacher Education are encouraging. Their work models the importance of carefully designed and executed descriptive research linked to a thoughtful program of experimental inquiry. Such efforts are rare indeed in our quest for understanding and helping the beginning teacher.

Qualitative research on the beginning teacher. Inquiry into the process of beginning to teach using field research methods from anthropology and sociology, is also a relatively rare and recent phemonenon. In an effort to develop a fine grained portrait of the life-space of the first year teacher, 18 beginning teachers were studied intensively during their first year (Ryan et al., 1980). Five semi-structured interviews were recorded, the first before school began, and the final interview at the end of the year. Classroom observations were made frequently throughout the entire year and narrative field notes were developed. Additional

telephone contacts; social interactions; and, conversations and interviews with school faculty, administrators and students, resulted in voluminous data that are still being analyzed. Throughout the study, the research team tried to maintain an "inside-outside" perspective; with the beginning teacher as an inside participant, and the researcher as the outside, non-participant.

Analysis of data from the beginning of the school year (Applegate et al., 1977) examined first yeart teachers' changing perceptions and relationships with others. This analysis first describes the changes which first year teachers perceived along six dimensions: (a) surprises, (b) satisfactions, (c) trouble sets, (d) perceptions of self in relation to students, (e) attitudes toward teacher preparation, and (f) career plans. For example, it was observed that beginning teachers' perceptions of satisfactions related to students underwent a subtle shift between preschool interviews and interviews conducted three or four weeks after school had begun. Being with students was the most frequently stated source of expected satisfaction in the August preschool interviews. These anticipated satisfactions would come from positive events, "when things go well." However, after three weeks of teaching, satisfactions were not expressed in a positive sense, but rather as the absence of the negative: "When an unruly kid was good." Descriptive findings of this nature can serve as a basis for more focused study and as an indication of needed support as teachers begin their professional career.

Next, the examination of first year teachers' relationships with others focused upon a support/nonsupport dimension and the sort of interactions which created those feelings. Six continua of supportive/

nonsupportive relationships were proposed: (a) cooperator . . . trouble-maker, (b) problem solver . . . double binder, (c) reinforcer . . . doubter/embarrasser, (d) advice seeker . . . advice giver, (e) socializer/sunshiner . . . cold shoulder/deflater, and (f) empathizer/confidant . . . judge/silencer. Further research is necessary to clarify and expand the continua and to provide further description of the way supportive/nonsupportive relationships are constructed.

Analysis of beginners' perceptions of their professional preparation was undertaken later in the year (Ryan, Applegate, Flora, Johnston, Lasley, Mager & Newman, 1979). Two themes emerged: a realization of the limits of teacher preparation programs and a valuing of first-hand experiences. Beyond these two themes, however, there was little consistency from teacher to teacher in their judgments about adequacy of their preparation.

The data were also analyzed for findings about the personal concerns of first year teachers (Johnston, 1979b). Two specific types of personal concerns were identified. Type I personal concerns focused on the developmental tasks of adulthood and were not expressed in direct relationship to the work of teaching. Two examples of Type I personal concerns are: (a) becoming established in the city and community where employed, and (b) beginning and ending romantic relationships. Type II personal concerns were those in which aspects of the work of teaching were perceived as being responsible for, or contributing to the concern. Type II personal concerns were expressed in direct relationship to the work of teaching. Examples of Type II personal concerns are: (a) justifying to spouse the need and desire to work, and (b) time demands of the teaching job which interfere with social life.

At the end of the school year, the complete data set were analyzed for first year teachers' perceptions of changes (Johnston, 1979a). While the Applegate et al. (1977) analysis demonstrated that beginning teachers varied greatly in their perceptions of changes early in the school year, by the close of school the similarity of response was so great that many teachers used identical words and phrases to describe the ways they had changed. The focus of beginning teachers' perceptions of how they had changed was on their primary responsibility: the act of instruction. Beginning teachers found they were not longer strangers in their schools, that they had developed legitimate professional identities of their own. Most important, they expressed a growing sense of confidence in themselves as mature, capable professionals.

Newberry (1977), in an interesting study of environmental features of the beginning teachers' world, examined what teachers know about what was happening in other classrooms; and how they find out what they know. She discovered that beginning teachers were making use of subtle and indirect means to gather information about goings-on in other clasrooms: nonverbal responses of others to their comments, observation of events and records; materials being carried by experienced teachers, and the like. Newberry also noted factors affecting who beginning teachers would ask for help and who they wouldn't.

Though descriptive and primarily hypothesis generating, qualitative examination of the lives of beginning teachers is of significant value. Such studies are essential to a broader, more comprehensive understanding of the beginning teacher and of the process of beginning to teach.

In summary, the past five decades of research on the beginning teacher and the process of beginning to teach, though neither rich nor varied, do, nonetheless, provide us with guidance for current induction practices. From the accumulated findings of fewer than a hundred studies, the profession now has some degree of empirical validation of many of its beliefs about the process of beginning to teach. There is an extensive, even if somewhat shallow, description of specific professional problems encountered by beginning teachers during their first year of teaching. Problems of discipline and classroom management typically have been found to be most frequently reported. Research on problems of beginning teachers conducted during the past 50 years has also reliably identified other common problem areas: (a) planning and organization, (b) evaluation of students' work, (c) motivation of students, and (d) adjustment to the teaching environment. There are multiple perspectives from which to view the professional socialization of beginning teachers. There is an emerging though sketchy image of the professional and personal lives of beginning teachers. There are also initial indications of what particular knowledge of teaching may be most useful to teachers as they begin their first year. Training beginning teachers to establish, clarify, and teach to students certain classroom management or "going to school skills" is but one example.

Induction: Research and Current Practice

The relationship between our research based knowledge and current practices of induction of beginning teachers is a straightforward one. It is not unlike the beleaguered East Tennessee farmer's response during the

Depression to the naive, young TVA agent's advice about innovative cultivation practices: "Son, I already know more about farming than I'm able to do."

Simply stated, while we have much yet to learn it appears that the education profession knows more about the induction of beginning teachers than it is doing. For a variety of reasons outlined below, research knowledge about the induction of beginning teachers is outrunning our ability to put that knowledge into practice. There is research based support for many induction practices which have long been advocated on an intuitive basis or practiced in a limited fashion. Reduced load and extra release time for first year teachers are but two such practices. Present research based knowledge does not suggest or call for new or radically different induction practices. The present knowledge base does appear to support certain induction practices that have been proposed or practiced on a limited scale for the past half century.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals Project on the Induction of Beginning Teachers (Hunt, 1968) is generally representative of the type which appears needed. The NASSP project contains several features which are supported by research findings. Included in the NASSP project were four common elements: (a) a teaching load reduced by one class period for the beginning teacher during the first year of employment; (b) a teaching load reduced by one class period for an experienced teacher who would advise and counsel the beginning teachers who were in the project; (c) assistance for beginners in finding and using good instructional materials; and (d) provision of special information on the character of the community and of the student body, and information on

school policies. The NASSP Project also attended to the timing and sequence of each of the component parts. The project began the moment the new teacher was hired. Information provided for the beginning teacher was paced and limited to the essentials necessary for the work at that particular time.

In another similar induction project, more specific emphasis was given to instruction and classroom management (McGinnis, 1968). Other programs focused on learning to organize time and activities, grouping students, achieving self-confidence, and developing a professional attitude (Noda, 1968). Others stressed cooperation among universities and school systems (Blackburn, 1977). One has featured community involvement in the orientation of beginning teachers (Brown, 1973). In the thirties and forties, considerable attention was paid to helping beginning teachers find suitable housing and become a part of the community (Edmonson, 1944; Hale, 1931), though this is not common today. These and many other induction practices suggested or described in the literature can derive support from the research on beginning teachers.

However, beginning teacher induction programs such as the NASSP Project are exceptional. Induction practices are uncommon, let alone induction practices that appear to have research based support of a comprehensive nature. Implementation of research knowledge into practical programs appears further hampered by poor dissemination of particularly successful induction strategies. Interest in induction programs has tended to be evanescent and dependent upon the economy and scarcity of teachers. The result is that most induction efforts have tended to be short-lived.

The question remains: What needs to be done in order to improve present induction practices? As is all too typical in education, the answers are not easy ones. First, there must be at all levels of the educational enterprise a recognition that the first year of teaching is to some degree, problematic for all beginners. The profession itself must resolutely affirm the difficult nature of becoming a teacher, and work to educate the public about the importance of careful induction of beginning teachers. If significant change is to occur, all segments of the profession and the public must come to realize that entrance into teaching is a unique period in a beginning teacher's personal and professional life--a time of special significance which demands special attention and resources.

Secondly, genuinely collaborative programs for induction of beginning teachers must be mounted by universities, local school systems, and state departments of education. While recognizing that colleges of education, and universities in general, are suffering from very tight budgets which do not allow for costly new initiatives, teacher education institutions can take greater responsibility for the induction of beginning teachers. One of the more visible effects of the declining need for teachers and the concomitant decline in teacher education program enrollments is that teacher education personnel are available for involvement in new educational ventures. Sor example, universities might offer transition courses during summer months. Such summer courses might well be joint ventures between teacher prepartion programs and surrounding school districts. Highly focused workshops or short courses could be offered on topics of particular relevance to beginning teachers. Findings regarding starting

to teach in the fall (Evertson, 1980) could be the focus of one such short course. School districts might sponsor such workshops in order to explicate specific program materials unique to the district. School service centers, local teacher centers, or administrative school study councils could each be useful vehicles for increased assistance to beginning teachers.

In a time of scarce resources, the lack of professional and--more important in this case--public commitment to substantive, meaningful programs of induction represents the most serious deterrent to improved induction practices. The belief that the first year of teaching can only be a trial by fire or sink or swim experience is not uncommon. The first year of teaching is seen as a teacher's professional birth, a natural and unavoidable part in the professional life of teachers. Some pain or discomfort is to be expected, with one being considered fortunate if it is absent.

As faulty as such arguments are, they should not be dismissed out of hand. Good programs of induction are not inexpensive. As an apparent luxury in lean years, induction programs must be carefully planned, and clearly presented to the public, local, and state officials.

A related matter of growing importance also requires professional commitment to the induction of beginning teachers. Increasing governmental involvement in the initiation and development of intern or induction programs will require increased professional awareness and activity. Lack of commitment may take the matter out of the hands of teacher educators. Florida and Arizona have already developed such programs (Bents & Howey, 1979) and HB1706 has been introduced in the Oklahoma House of

Representatives. In enacted, the bill would create an "Entry-Year Assistance Program" and would involve the beginning teacher, a teacher consultant appointed by the school system to work directly with and supervise the beginner, and an Entry Year Committee made up of the school principal, a higher education instructor, and the teacher consultant. This committee would work with the beginning teacher and would make recommendations regarding certification ("Education Reforms Proposed in Oklahoma," 1980).

A Research Agenda

Existing research on the process of beginning to teach has neglected many important topics, while others--problems of beginning teachers, for example--have been an apparent siren to investigators. Since so little of the territory has been explored, finding new areas for inquiry is easy. Establishing a research agenda, however, is more difficult.

Underlying the agenda sketched below is the belief that future research on the beginning teacher and the process of beginning to teach should place a high priority on description. Hinely and Ponder (1979) suggest that an emerging function of theory is the description of practice. Like Kohler (1979), they see the purpose of such description is to provide understanding of what events occur in classrooms, why certain events occur, and of the meaning of these events in the classroom context. It is precisely this sort of systematic investigation which should be given strong emphasis in efforts to better understand the events in the lives of beginning teachers.

Another underlying tenet of this research agenda is the need to pull together the accumulated knowledge about beginning to teach. In the above overview of non-research literature about beginning to teach, we have tried to suggest that the reflective interpretations of beginning teachers' experiences, advice to and about beginning teachers, scholarly essays about specific aspects of beginning to teach, and the first hand reports of beginning teachers represent a great mass of knowledge and data about beginning teachers and the process of beginning to teach. There is a need, however, to produce coherent syntheses and comprehensive overviews of the knowledge about beginning to teach. For example, Howey and Bents (1979) have recently offered an overview of selected facets of beginning to teach. Such efforts to tie together the many complicated pieces of beginning to teach provide much needed focus and direction for further study.

More limited aspects of beginning to teach are also in need of scholarly analysis and synthesis. For example, intervention and induction program effects have not been explored with any concerted effort. In 1978, NIE awarded a large research contract to the Educational Testing Service to conduct a study of the nature and effectiveness of programs designed to aid beginning teachers. Publication of the final report of this project will be of major importance to our understanding of induction programs. The results of this analysis will also aid in the establishment of a more specific beginning teacher research agenda.

With an aim toward more comprehensive, descriptive research, high priority should be assigned to exploring the beginning teachers' world

from their perspective of important experiences. Newberry's (1977) study of what environmental features furnish information to beginning teachers about activities in other teachers' classrooms is but one example of small sample, in-depth descriptive studies which are particularly appropriate. The First Year Teacher Study (Ryan et al., 1980) represents a recent effort to provide a comprehensive description of a broad range of beginning teacher experiences. Rather than focus on one or two aspects of beginning to teach, The First Year Teacher Study sought to explore events in the lives of 18 different first year teachers in different settings. The study described the context of a particular beginning teacher, and that teacher's perceptions and construction of the reality of that context. Such understandings can provide an informed basis for induction efforts, and can provide additional direction for needed inquiry.

Knowledge and research for other professional fields and academic disciplines may inform our own efforts. Professional socialization, induction, and the beginning year are not concerns unique to teaching. In business, architecture, and nursing, for example, neophytes must somehow enter their respective professional worlds. Do they have similar problems, and what is known of these problems? Research on beginning nurses, for example (Kramer, McDonnell & Reed, 1972; Kramer, 1974; Tenbrink, 1968), suggests findings similar to research on beginning teachers (cf. Fox, 1977; Kramer, 1974). Utility of induction schemes developed for other professionals should not be ignored by those concerned with induction of beginning teachers. Role comparison research within the teaching occupation might also prove fruitful. One instance of such research, a study exploring the experience of beginning college

professors, is currently in progress at Syracuse University (Mager, 1980).

Knowledge and research from academic disciplines such as psychology, anthropology, and sociology should be incorporated into our understanding of beginning to teach. For example, four different perspectives on the socialization of teachers have been advanced (Edgar & Warren, 1969; Haller, 1967; Hoy, 1967, 1968, 1969; Wright & Tuska, 1966, 1967, 1968). Undoubtedly there are other explanations for such a complex process. Further, the fundamental importance of the socialization process in the professional career of teachers demands continued exploration from a variety of perspectives using a variety of research methods.

As Vaughn (1979) and Glassberg (1979) have suggested, another potentially rich and important field of inquiry concerns knowledge of adult development as it relates to the training and induction of beginning teachers. Building on the work of Hunt and Sprinthall (1976) and Sprinthall and Bernier (1978) with inservice and preservice teachers, much conceptual work remains to be accomplished before this knowledge can be applied to practice.

The basis for programs designed to support teachers as they enter the teacher profession must be based on the knowledge of how teaching affects the beginning teacher. Research by Applegate et al. (1977); Gaede (1978); Johnston (1979a); Ligana (1970) and others suggest the importance of particular periods and experiences as teachers begin their professional careers. The precise timing and nature of support needed is not well known. Moreover, little is known of how various presage, context, and process variables interact to affect the beginning teacher and the nature of induction support required. Careful description of how beginning

teachers change is essential for the development of effective induction programs. When used in conjunction with what is currently known about the problems of beginning teachers, such knowledge can provide a basis for induction efforts. One example is the work on classroom management and the beginning days of school, currently in progress at the Texas R & D Center (Evertson, 1980).

The research agenda sketched above is modest, though appropriate to the present level of professional knowledge and practice. Of central importance is the need to seek knowledge which will provide a sound descriptive theoretical base for further inquiry. Equally important is the need to employ research strategies appropriate to such ecological description. Present research knowledge of the beginning teacher, as in much of teacher education, does not provide an answer to the question posed by Fuller and Bown: "The appropriate question at this stage of our knowledge is not 'Are we right?' but only 'What is out there?'" (1975, p. 52).

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